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United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

X New Submission ____ Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Rosenwald Schools in Virginia (012-5041)

B. Associated Historic Contexts

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

C. Form Prepared by

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D. Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation. (___ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Signature and title of certifying official

6/30/04
Date

VIRGINIA DEPARTMENT OF HISTORIC RESOURCES
State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

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Signature of the Keeper Date of Action

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Table of Contents for Written Narrative

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Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and the title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets *in How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Fill in page numbers for each section in the space below.

E. Statement of Historic Contexts (If more than one historic context is documented, present them in sequential order.)

F. Associated Property Types (Provide description, significance, and registration requirements.)

G. Geographical Data

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods (Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.)

I. Major Bibliographical References (List major written works and primary location of additional documentation: State Historic Preservation Office, other State agency, Federal agency, local government, university, or other, specifying repository.)

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Statement of Historic Contexts:

Introduction

The concept of universal public education took root in Virginia with the new Virginia constitution of 1869 that provided for a universal, but segregated system of public education. Prior to this, schools were either private institutions or sponsored by religious organizations and were not available to most children in Virginia, especially African-American children. The provisions, however, were far from adequate.[1] During Reconstruction, former slaves actively pursued universal education, establishing hundreds of schools throughout the South. They viewed literacy and formal education as a path to liberation and freedom. The Julius Rosenwald Fund sought to use private money to leverage available public funds in order to improve the education and lives of African-Americans in the South.

Julius Rosenwald and the Rosenwald Fund

Julius Rosenwald (1862-1932) was the president of Sears, Roebuck and Company and a benefactor of African American causes. In 1917, he established the Julius Rosenwald Fund, the chief purpose of which was to improve the education for African Americans. Augmented by local taxes and private gifts, the fund paid for the construction of more than 5,000 schools in 15 southern states. Among other causes he supported, he established the Museum of Science and Industry in Chicago (1929), contributed heavily to the University of Chicago, and founded dental infirmaries in the public schools. Rosenwald was heavily influenced by Booker T. Washington and his work at the Tuskegee Institute, and believed in the importance of industrial training and education for blacks in the rural South. Initially, the Rosenwald program contributed to the construction of schools only in Alabama. Eventually, the scope of the Rosenwald Fund expanded to fund schools throughout the South. Rosenwald also funded Carter G. Woodson's publication Journal of Negro History and was a trustee of Tuskegee Institute from 1912 until his death in 1932.

The Julius Rosenwald Fund traces its origins to May 1911, when Rosenwald first met Booker T. Washington. Rosenwald, aware of Washington's work, hosted a luncheon in Chicago for him, with the aim of raising funds for Tuskegee. During that meeting, the two men found they shared many beliefs. The two men shared the belief that individuals were better off starting life without too many advantages. Both men wanted to enable institutions to help people raise themselves from poverty, so long as that assistance could be administered without destroying a person's self-reliance. Both understood and had lived with the effects of racial and ethnic prejudice.[2]

Before he met Rosenwald, Washington made an earlier attempt at rural school building. In 1904, Washington convinced John D. Rodgers of the Standard Oil Company (through the General Education Board headed by John D. Rockefeller) to support the construction of schools for rural African Americans. In that year, Standard Oil provided funds for three Alabama schools. Over the next five years, 46 schools were constructed in rural Alabama. The Standard Oil funding, however, ceased after Rodgers' death in 1909, and with it, the first efforts of Washington to build schools in Alabama ended.[3]

After Washington met Rosenwald, he was able to convince him to pick up where Standard Oil left off. In 1912, Rosenwald funded six rural Alabama schools, and donated an additional $25,000 to mark his 50th birthday. The additional donation was to be distributed as matching building grants for other African-American schools.[4] This system of matching grants was to become to cornerstone of the Rosenwald Fund. The Alabama school-building program became the responsibility of Clinton Calloway in the Extension Department of Tuskegee Institute, under the close supervision of Booker T. Washington.

After several years of ill health, Washington died in 1915. The collaboration between Washington, Tuskegee, and Rosenwald had created 300 rural African-American schools in Alabama, Tennessee, and Georgia, in addition to the original six, direct-funded schools. After Washington's death, Rosenwald endowed a memorial fund in Washington's name to pay the Institute's debts and add to its endowment.

The work begun by Washington and Rosenwald continued after Washington's death, and was soon undertaken on a much larger scale than either man had initially envisioned. Together Rosenwald, the General Education Board, the Slater and Jeanes Funds, and the new head of Tuskegee, Mrs. Booker T. Washington, sought to develop a systematic plan for rural African-American schools in the South. Rosenwald's new plan included provisions for the housing and training of teachers. To this end, Rosenwald agreed to pay one-third of the cost of building schools where strong financial and social commitment existed for the education in the local African American community. Each community seeking a school had to provide enough land for playgrounds and agricultural production; two acres was the minimum. Labor, land, and materials furnished locally counted as a cash contribution at current market value. Each community had to guarantee to equip, furnish, and maintain schools after they were built. The Fund would only support construction if the school term was at least five consecutive months, and would only provide teachers' homes if the school term was at least eight months.[5] It was Rosenwald's hope to gradually reduce his contributions and increase public support, with the hope that eventually the entire process of funding African American education would be undertaken using public money.[6]

The project soon became too great for Tuskegee to manage alone. On October 30, 1917, Rosenwald incorporated the Julius Rosenwald Fund in Chicago as a non-profit corporation having as its purpose the promotion of "the well-being of mankind."[7] During the first phase of the Fund's operation (1917-1928), Rosenwald himself maintained control of the Fund. By 1920, administration of the building project was transferred from Tuskegee to Nashville. Also, for the

first time, construction put under the management of a white man, Samuel L. Smith, who was named director of the Rosenwald Fund Southern Office. (Previously, Smith had been State Agent for Negro Schools at the Tennessee Board of Education from 1914-1920.) One of the reasons for placing a white man in charge of school construction, it has been argued, was that many white contractors resented taking instructions from and being under the supervision of African Americans at Tuskegee.[8] It has also been argued that the Rosenwald Fund was receiving criticisms from rural school architecture expert Fletcher B. Dresslar and General Education Board officials that Tuskegee did not provide proper construction supervision and sound financial practices.[9] Smith's responsibilities included cooperating with the departments of public instruction in 14 southern states (Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia), and later West Virginia. Under Rosenwald's plan, Smith would see that African-American State Building Agents were hired, with half of their salaries paid by the Fund and half by the states desiring new schools. These state agents would inspect and supervise the construction of schools and teachers' homes in their respective states.

Rules detailing requirements to be met prior to disbursement of funds were set at a meeting of State Supervisors of Negro Rural Schools held in Washington, D.C. on August 30, 1917[10]. The requirements, summarized below, were:

1. The funds for building the schools were to be provided by Julius Rosenwald. The sites and buildings of all schools aided by these funds would become the property of the public school authorities.
2. Funds were to be used to encourage officers, teachers, and public school officials to provide better schoolhouses, equipment, and education for African American children. The funds were to supplement money, material, and labor that may be provided by the community.
3. Funds were to be used to provide schoolhouses in rural districts, preferably for one and two-teacher schools. To receive funds, districts had to secure from public school funds or raise among themselves an amount equivalent to, or larger than that given by the Rosenwald Fund. In no case was the sum of money provided by the Fund to exceed $400 for a one-teacher, and $500 for a two-teacher school. Each schoolhouse was to be furnished with two sanitary toilets, and the building equipped with desks, blackboards, and heaters. The school site must include ample space for playgrounds, the minimum requirement for a one-teacher type being two acres.
4. Rosenwald aid would not be given until the amount raised by the community and that given by the Fund were sufficient to complete and furnish the school.
5. Committees qualifying for aid would be considered in the order of their application. The Fund would deposit with every cooperating State Department of Education a sum of money recommended by the General Field Agent, to constitute working capital, from which the proper state official would make disbursements as required.
6. At the beginning of every school year, the number of schools to receive aid in each state should be agreed upon by the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute, and the State Department of Education in each respective state.
7. The kind of building to be erected was to be approved by the Extension Department of

Tuskegee Institute and, where required, by the State Department of Education. Plans and specifications for every building were to be approved by the General Field Agent before construction began. On request from the State Department of Education, the Fund would provide general suggestions, plans and specifications for schoolhouses even for those not receiving aid from the Fund.

8. Each community receiving aid from the Fund must complete and furnish the schoolhouse within six months after receipt of Rosenwald funds.
9. As far as possible, U.S. Department of Agriculture county agents, teachers, or any persons authorized to help in the building of the school, were to gain the approval and cooperation of the state, county, or township officers prior to beginning work.
10. Agents, teachers, and the like were to secure the cooperation of Jeanes Fund Supervisors and State Supervisors of Negro Rural Schools. It was further desired that these agents and teachers enlist the cooperation and assistance of larger schools in various counties. It was hoped that through the help and assistance of such institutions a larger number of rural schools would be built in a shorter time.
11. Further, to secure a better grade of teachers and to assist these rural schools to better serve the needs of the community, it was suggested that an appropriation of not less than $30 in any one year be granted to deserving communities that had erected new school buildings through aid received from the Fund. This $30 was to be granted for the purpose of extending the school term by two months for a one-teacher school and one month for a two-teacher school provided the community first raises an equal or greater amount for the same purpose. This plan was to be carried out on a three-year basis with the goal of the public authorities of the state taking over the increase of such extended school terms.

Rosenwald's advancing age and failing health led to a major reorganization of the Fund on January 1, 1928. After that reorganization, the Fund embraced new mandates, transitioning from private to corporate giving. Edwin Rodgers Embree replaced Rosenwald as president of the Fund. Embree employed a full-time Chicago headquarters staff that answered to a newly created board of trustees. Programs of the fund, which had originally focused on building rural African-American schools, expanded to include aid to colleges for teacher training, black leadership development, fellowships for promising black and white students, research on African-American health and medical services, subsidies for county and school libraries, appropriations for specific social studies, and contributions to agencies and individuals working in the field of race relations.

Julius Rosenwald believed that the generation that contributed to the making of wealth should be the one to witness the fruits of it. Accordingly, he stipulated that the Fund expend its interest and principle within 25 years of his death. (Rosenwald died in 1932.) Accordingly, Embree discontinued the Rosenwald school building program in 1937 and closed the Fund completely in 1948. Until the past decade, the Rosenwald Fund was the largest philanthropic fund in the United States designed to fully expend itself in the name of the services it was established to provide.

By the end of the Rosenwald Fund's school-building program in 1932, the Fund had aided in the

construction of 5,357 new schools in 883 counties across 15 southern states. The Fund also occasionally supported construction of workshops and teachers homes. The largest numbers of Rosenwald schools were built in North Carolina – 813. In addition, Mississippi had 637, Texas 527, South Carolina 500, Louisiana 435, Alabama 407, Arkansas 389, Virginia 381, Tennessee 373, Georgia 261, Oklahoma 198, Kentucky 158, Maryland 153, Florida 125, and Missouri 4. The total cost of the entire project was $28,408,520. This includes $4,364,869 (15.36% in Rosenwald funds), $18,105,805 (63.73%) in public funds, $4,725,891 (16.64%) from African Americans, and $1,211,975 (4.27%) from the white community.[11]

The Architecture of Rosenwald Schools

The Rosenwald-funded schools varied in size from small one-teacher schools to large eleven-teacher facilities that offered instruction from first-grade through high school. In the Fund's early years, wood-frame, one- and two-teacher schools were the most common. In later years, larger schools constructed of brick were built with greater frequency, though always in much smaller numbers than the wood-framed rural schools. One of the distinguishing characteristics of the Rosenwald Fund was the mandatory construction standards that had to be met in order to receive funding. These standards dictated that the proposed lot for school construction must consist of at least two acres. In addition, the architecture of the school was required to follow one of the designs outlined in guidance.

The Fund first published architectural plans produced by a pair of African-American architecture professors at Tuskegee, Robert R. Taylor and W.A. Hazel, in a 1915 pamphlet titled "The Negro Rural School and Its Relation to the Community." Taylor and Hazel created plans for a one-teacher school, two variations on a five-teacher school, and included plans for an industrial building, a privy, and two homes for teachers.

In 1920, control of the school-building program shifted to the new Rosenwald Fund office in Nashville. There, director Samuel L. Smith created new designs. The Fund soon built on those foundations with the publication of *Community School Plans*. The Rosenwald Fund reprinted *Community School Plans* twice, once in 1929 in *For Better Schoolhouses*, and again as *Community Units* in 1941. Smith produced plans for schools that ranged in size from one to seven teachers, with separate designs for buildings that faced east-west and buildings that faced north-south. Smith also produced plans for privies, industrial buildings, and residences for teachers. The plans were eventually distributed by the Interstate School Building Service, and reached an audience far beyond the South.[12]

The most recognizable architectural features of Rosenwald schools were large banks of windows, an important feature in an era where rural schools seldom had the benefit of electricity. Samuel Smith's plans specified room size and height, blackboard and desk placement, paint colors, and window shades, all in order to make the most of available light. Smith insisted that windows be placed so that light came only from the students' left, and included alternative plans depending upon the orientation of the school.

African-American Education in Virginia

Organized philanthropy during this period, particularly the Peabody Fund, the John F. Slater Fund, the General Education Board, the Julius Rosenwald Fund, and the Jeanes Fund, poured millions of dollars into African-American school construction. In 1870, William Henry Ruffner, Virginia's first Superintendent of Public Schools drafted legislation that established public education and the Department of Instruction. Ruffner took his legislation a step further by including the education of blacks. Ruffner believed that the state was responsible for black education; however, these institutions were to remain segregated from white schools.[13] This dual school system, separate and unequal, persisted until the 1960s and 1970s when the schools were finally integrated following the 1954 Supreme Court decision, *Brown v. the Board of Education.* Although African Americans did have state-supported education, it was far inferior to that of whites.[14]

To aid in the uplifting of African Americans through education, benefactors of the time established various funds. One of the first of these funds was the John F. Slater Fund established in 1882. The Slater Fund, supported by John F. Slater, donated money for schools, trade schools, and public country training schools for blacks across the South. The General Education Board consisted of a $1 million endowment from John D. Rockefeller, which the Board used for school building maintenance and construction. Anna T. Jeanes founded the Jeanes Foundation, also known as The Negro Rural School Fund, Inc. The Jeanes Foundation donated money to African-American schools, but focused primarily on training black teachers.[15]

Distribution of Rosenwald Schools in Virginia

Rosenwald schools were built in 79 of Virginia's 95 counties – fully 83% of all counties in Virginia had at least one Rosenwald school. Since the overwhelming majority of Rosenwald schools were built in rural areas, when one discounts the more urbanized parts of Virginia, it is fair to say that virtually every rural county in Virginia had at least one Rosenwald school. Most Rosenwald schools in Virginia built in Virginia were of the smaller designs, specifically the one- or two-teacher types. Twenty-per-cent of Rosenwald schools in Virginia (73) were designed for one teacher, while some 50% (184) were designed for two teachers. Of the larger designs, only the three-teacher designs were built with any frequency (45 schools, or 12%). Very few larger schools were built in Virginia. The only larger schools built in any numbers were the six-teacher types, of which only 15 (4%) were built. Only 3 five-teacher schools, 4 seven-teacher, and 5 eight-teacher schools were built in Virginia. Of the very largest types, there were no nine-teacher schools, and only one each of the ten- and eleven-teacher schools. The table below records this distribution of schools by number of teachers.

DISTRIBUTION OF VIRGINIA ROSENWALD SCHOOLS BY

TEACHER TYPE		
Number of Teachers	Number of Schools	Percent of total
1	73	20.00%
2	184	50.54%
3	45	12.36%
4	33	9.06%
5	3	0.82%
6	15	4.12%
7	4	1.09%
8	5	1.37%
9	0	0%
10	1	0.27%
11	1	0.27%
Total	364	

The temporal distribution of Rosenwald school construction in Virginia was fairly evenly distributed. On average, 24 Rosenwald schools were built each year, beginning in 1917, and ending in the budget year 1931-32. (Construction figures for the years 1917-20 are combined, as the Tuskegee records did not record school construction by year. After the program was transferred to Nashville, the figures were kept by budget year.) The most active construction spanned the budget years 1922-23 to 1926-27. Construction ranged from a low of 7 schools constructed in the final budget year of the program (1931-32), to a high of 45 during 1923-24. The next most productive single budget years were 1926-27 (38 schools) 1922-23 and 1924-25 (35 schools each), and 1925-26 (32 schools). During the Tuskegee years from 1917-21, school construction averaged just over 15 schools per year.

DISTRIBUTION OF VIRGINIA ROSENWALD SCHOOL BUILDINGS BY YEAR OF CONSTRUCTION		
Year built	Number of Schools	Percent of total
1917-20	79	20.68%
1920-21	20	5.24%
1921-22	25	6.54%
1922-23	35	9.16%
1923-24	45	11.78%
1924-25	35	9.16%
1925-26	32	8.38%
1926-27	38	9.95%
1927-28	18	4.95%
1928-29	17	4.45%
1929-30	18	4.71%
1930-31	13	3.40%
1931-32	7	1.83%
Total	382	
Note: 18 non-school support buildings were also constructed, for a total of 382		

F. Associated Property Types

F. I Rosenwald Schools
F. II Property Type Description
F. III Significance
F. IV Registration Requirements

Constructed in Virginia from 1917 to 1932, Rosenwald school buildings in Virginia fall into two distinct subtypes based on their physical and associative characteristics: Subtype 1) school buildings constructed from 1917 to 1920 under the supervision of Tuskegee Institute according to plans and specifications drawn up by R.R. Taylor, Director of Mechanical Industries and W.A. Hazel, Division of Architecture, Tuskegee Institute, and Subtype 2) schools built from 1920 to 1932 under the supervision of the Rosenwald office in Nashville according to designs and specifications prepared by Samuel L. Smith.

Subtype 1: By 1915, Booker T. Washington, Principal of Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute and Clinton J. Calloway, Director of Tuskegee's Extension Department, had published The Rural Negro School and Its Relation to the Community to serve as a guide for communities which were interested in constructing a Rosenwald school. This booklet provided plans (numbers 11 to 20) for schools, central schools, industrial buildings, county training schools, teacher's homes, and boys and girls dormitories. Seventy-nine of the 382 Rosenwald schools constructed in Virginia (20.68%) were built between 1917 and 1920, and a number of those remaining resemble the elevations and plans that appear in The Rural Negro School.

Subtype 2: After the establishment of the Southern office in Nashville in 1920, Samuel L. Smith published a series of pamphlets presenting a variety of floor plans and specifications for use by communities interested in constructing a Rosenwald school. The pamphlets also contained information regarding site selection, landscaping and bird's eye views of an ideal Rosenwald school campus. Beginning that year, educators and communities built Rosenwald schools according to Smith's designs. These schools are the most easily discernable and readily identifiable. Additionally, in the late 1910a and throughout the 1920s, Tuskegee and the Southern office began the process of photographing each school and keeping the photograph on file, providing additional documentary sources.

There are characteristics that hold constant for both subtypes in Virginia. Regarding a specific period of time and locations, Rosenwald schools were built in the southeast region of the United States within a twenty-five year period extending from 1913 to 1937. In regard to physical characteristics, all schools are one to two stories with an east/west orientation. Almost all are modest, wood frame buildings with little or no detailing. Any detailing is either Colonial Revival or Craftsman. All are located in rural areas or small communities. For associative characteristics, all Rosenwald schools were for rural African Americans and provided elementary/industrial education.

Description Subtype 1 Schools

With the publication of The Rural Negro School and Its Relation to the Community, Washington and Calloway helped standardize Rosenwald school plans. Included in the publication were designs for "one-teacher," "two-teacher." "five-teacher," central and training schools. Washington was certain that the majority of rural schools would be of the "one-teacher" type. These structures feature minimal Craftsman detailing, specifically wide-overhanging eaves and exposed brackets. Typically, these structures featured hipped or gable roofs, bands of double-hung sash windows, and interior chimney flues. They are covered with simple weatherboarding and the structures rest on brick piers. As with the later designs of Samuel L. Smith, Washington and Calloway supplied alternate designs to provide for an east-west orientation and maximum lighting. The interior room arrangement contained classrooms with small cloakrooms and an industrial room. Two teacher facilities contained classrooms with a movable partition between the rooms so that the classrooms could be used as a meeting room or auditorium.

Description Subtype #2 Schools

In 1920, when he established the Southern Office in Nashville, Tennessee, Julius Rosenwald hired Samuel Smith as the agency's first director. An experienced administrator with a keen interest in country schoolhouse design, Smith drew up a series of school plans. Demand for the school designs proved so great that in 1924, the Rosenwald Fund issued a booklet entitled Community School Plans, which included floor plans and exterior renderings of seventeen schools ranging in size from "one teacher" to "seven teacher" schools. The plans also included two designs for teachers' residences, plus a "Sanitary Privy for Community School." Along with the designs, the booklet contained contractor's specifications and advice on site location and size, painting, and landscaping.

Rosenwald schools incorporated the most up-to-date designs in American rural school architecture. The structures rely on proportion and massing of form, accentuated by groupings of windows and minimal detailing. Since electricity was unavailable in most rural areas, maximization of natural light was the principal concern. Smith's designs called for groupings of tall, double-hung sash windows, oriented to catch only east-west sunshine. Smith drew two separate versions of each plan so that no matter what site a community chose, the building could have proper east-west orientation. Interior color schemes, seating plans and window shade arrangements made the fullest use of sunlight. Floor plans always showed seating arrangements with the windows at the children's left side so that their writing arms would not cast shadow on their desk tops. Light paint colors reflected maximum illumination.

As with the designs supplied by Tuskegee, each Rosenwald school contained an industrial room. Also, the school's interior design encouraged its use as a meeting center for the adult community. In the smaller schools, folding doors divided two classrooms that could be used as a meeting space or small auditorium.

Exterior architecture of the schools exhibited only the faintest hint of Colonial or Craftsman trim. Smaller buildings usually reflected the Craftsman style in the bracketing found under the wide overhanging eaves. Larger schools, however, featured columns or dormers, details commonly found on structures in the Colonial Revival style. Almost all of the schools built

under the supervision of the Southern Office were one story tall. Although some of the large schools had brick exteriors, most were clad in weatherboard with brick chimneys. Smith recommended a two-acre site to "give ample space for the schoolhouse, two sanitary privies, a teacher's home, playgrounds for the boys and girls, a plot for agricultural demonstrations, and proper landscaping." The interior room arrangement depended on the type of school built, but all contained classrooms cloak rooms, and an industrial room. Larger schools often contained an auditorium while smaller schools had folding doors or movable partitions between classrooms. Most of the school buildings that have been identified so far in Virginia fall in Subtype #2 are examples of the two-teacher type.

F. III Significance
Rosenwald schools are eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A (Education, Ethnic History – African American, and Criterion C (Architecture).

Criterion A – Education
The Rosenwald School Buiding Fund constituted an important avenue for the advancement of African-American education during much of the first half of the twentieth century. From 1913 to 1937, the Julius Rosenwald Fund contributed to the construction of 5,358 elementary schools, teacher' homes, and industrial buildings in 15 southern states. In Virginia, the Fund built 664 schools, 18 teachers' homes and vocational buildings. The remaining school buildings reflect not only one of the most ambitious school building projects ever undertaken but they symbolize the African-Americans' struggle for educational opportunities in a segregated South.

In the early 1900s, Booker T. Washington and his staff at Tuskegee Institute conceived an ambitious program of private-public partnership to improve African-American rural schooling. Initially, Washington aimed the school building program for communities around Tuskegee, Alabama, but eventually he expanded his ideas to include communities throughout the South. With the assistance of Julius Rosenwald, President of Sears, Roebuck & Co., Washington launched one of the most ambitious school building programs ever instigated.

At the time when Julius Rosenwald agreed to supply matching grants to rural communities interested in building African-American elementary schools, African-American public schools were suffering from two overriding factors: poverty and localism. By the early 1900s, the typical African-American school was nothing more than a deteriorating log cabin, shanty or dilapidated church filled with children for only three or four months out of the year. Often, the teacher was barely more knowledgeable than the pupils. Washington realized that rural African-American communities needed qualified teachers and quality school facilities. In 1905, with money from Anna T. Jeanes, Washington established the Jeanes fund which provided for the employment of qualified teachers to work in the rural schools. To improve educational facilities, Washington turned to Chicago philanthropist Julius Rosenwald. With a guarantee from Rosenwald to supply a third of the necessary funds, Washington implemented a program by which communities would raise a third of the funds and the state would contribute the remaining funds. Although Rosenwald and Washington hoped that members of the white community would also contribute funds to the erection of the school buildings, white residents rarely contributed substantial sums for the school.

An integral component of Washington and Rosenwald's educational philosophy was industrial education and therefore, every school included an industrial room. The Rosenwald Fund never challenged segregation but rather provided eight grade educations supplemented by the "industrial" classes in farming and home economics. Rosenwald schools educated students to be good farmers and better housewives.

Nevertheless, the Rosenwald School Building Fund represents a landmark in the history of African-American education. As a result of the Fund's initiatives, more African-American children went to school longer and with better-trained teachers in better-constructed and equipped schools. Rosenwald money helped stimulate increases in public tax money for African-American education. Rosenwald schools served as community centers where not only students by their parents learned better methods of agriculture, sanitation, hygiene, and nutrition.

Criterion A: Ethnic History – African-American
From 1913 to 1937, the Rosenwald School Building Fund constructed schools in 833 counties in 15 Southern states exclusively for the use and education of African-Americans. By the time the last of the 5,358 schools had been constructed, the Rosenwald Fund had provided monies to improve the educational conditions for over 648,000 African-American students. The Rosenwald School Building Fund provided generations of African-Americans real educational opportunities.

In addition to the educational benefits of the School Building Fund, Rosenwald schools became active community centers for rural African-Americans. As Samuel Smith, Director of the Southern Office noted, "the best modern school is one which is designed to serve the entire community for twelve months in the year." In these community centers, the Jeanes Supervisors taught better agricultural methods, established homemakers' clubs and held home products exhibits. Jeanes teachers and supervisors started home garden clubs and boy's agricultural clubs, worked for school and community improvement, and taught basic skills such as shuck work, hat making, sewing, and cooking. The Rosenwald schools became the site of musicals, theatricals, pageants, and exhibits of industrial work. The school often set the standard for the neighborhood in regard to architecture, sanitation, and maintenance.

Criterion C – Architecture
The Julius Rosenwald School Building Fund contributed money toward the construction of 5,358 school buildings in 833 counties in 15 southern states. This building program has been called one of the most ambitious school building programs ever instigated. In addition to the sheer number of schools the Fund helped create, the Rosenwald schools reflected innovations in educational architectural design and set the standard for school construction for years to come. One of the greatest contributions of the Julius Rosenwald Fund was the development of floor plans and specifications for a variety of schools. These plans and specifications ensured every community a quality school. The designs commissioned by the Rosenwald School Building fund revolutionized rural school architecture. These designs included alternate plans ensuring an east/west orientation for maximization of natural lighting, the inclusion of industrial and cloak

rooms, and specifications for window shades, sanitary privies, heating stoves, and interior paint schemes. The folding doors between classrooms allowed the school to be used as a community center and meeting place.

As a student of schoolhouse design and construction, Samuel Smith, Director of the Southern Office, drew up a series of plans incorporating these innovations and techniques for educational facilities. Smith published his designs one at a time in four-page pamphlets that proves to be so popular that in 1924, he published his plans in a booklet, Community School Plans. The booklet proved equally popular and Smith re-issued the booklet in 1926, 1927, and 1928. Whites as well as African-Americans used the booklet for schoolhouse construction. Included in the booklet were designers for "teacherages" or teachers' homes and a sanitary privy. The booklet contains specifications and recommendations on siting, painting, and landscaping.

Smith was particularly concerned with the maximization of natural light, providing alternative plans for each design to ensure an east-west orientation. His plans call for tall, double-hung sash windows and dictated paint colors, seating arrangements, window treatments, and blackboard placement. An integral part of the school design was the incorporation of an "industrial room," following the educational philosophy of Booker T. Washington. Smith also included an auditorium or connecting rooms with movable partitions to serve as an all-purpose community room.

By 1928, one in five rural schools for African-American students in the South was a Rosenwald school. Rosenwald schools housed one-third of the region's rural African-American schoolchildren and teachers. By the 1930s, thousands of old shanty schoolhouses had been replaced with new, larger structures constructed from modern standardized plans. These buildings set the standard not only in regard to schoolhouse architecture and design but they influenced the construction, architecture, and maintenance of other structures in rural areas and nearby communities.

F. IV Registration Requirements

Rosenwald schools were essentially modest, wood-frame buildings constructed in the rural South as quality facilities for African-American education. While the majority of the school buildings were frame, rare examples of brick schools have been identified and others probably exist. To be eligible, a Rosenwald school in Virginia must have been built between 1917 and 1932 utilizing funds provided personally by Julius Rosenwald or the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The extant schools will also meet registration requirements because of their design, floor plans, workmanship and materials. Stylistics details are minimal, although some schools display Craftsmen or Colonial Revival influences. In general, to qualify for registration, the schools should retain their original location in a rural setting and the design, floor plans, workmanship and materials that evoke their period of construction and the conditions of the time. They should retain a high degree of architectural integrity. The integrity of their association and feeling is greatly bolstered by their rural setting. Nevertheless, Rosenwald schools nominated solely under Criterion A for Education and Ethnic History do not have to possess as high a degree of integrity as those school buildings which are also nominated under Criterion C for architecture.

F. I "Teacherages" or Teachers' Homes

F. II Description

Teachers' homes or "teacherages," were similar to the schools in concept, style, and design. They were an important part of Washington's overall educational concept. Washington dictated that the teacher's home should not be expensive but rather should be comfortable. It was to be a model for the mothers of the community. Additionally, he advocated that the kitchen, back porch, dining and living room, and front porch be open so that they could be used for large community gatherings. The emphasis was initially placed on the erection of schools. Washington and Calloway, however, presented two plans for teachers' homes in The Rural Negro School. Design #15 for a Teacher's Home, Five Rooms in The Rural Negro School contains living and dining rooms, two bedrooms, a kitchen, bathroom, and pantry as well as front and rear porches. The house would rest on brick piers and be covered with simple weatherboarding. A central flue serviced the four corner fireplaces of the principal rooms. Design #16 featured a more modest floor plan of three rooms (bedroom, living room, and kitchen) but included in the plan proposed future additions for a dining room and kitchen. The front elevation for Design #16 proposed a dwelling with hipped roof, two interior chimneys, brick piers, and a four bay façade with central single leaf entrance.

Samuel Smith offered four plans in his Community School Plans: two reformulations of school plan No. 200, a third in the popular Craftsman/Bungalow style, No. 302, and a large home resembling a streamlined Colonial Revival cottage, No. 301. Smith's designs were more compact than those Tuskegee had supplied earlier. They resembled more of a family home than a house which could be used for community gatherings and socials. Plan 200 contained a large living/dining room, two bedrooms, kitchen, bath, and small pantry. The house was designed to rest on brick piers, have a side gable roof and be clad in simple weatherboarding. Plan 302 resembled a typical craftsman bungalow with a small gable roof supported by tapered posts. The interior contained two bedrooms, a bathroom, kitchen, and combination living room/dining room. Plan 301, the Colonial Revival cottage, featured a small gable roof dormer in the center of the roofline, a small recessed porch, side gable roof, brick pier foundation, and simple weatherboarding exterior. The interior plan contained three bedrooms, a bath, living/dining room, kitchen, pantry, and rear recessed porch.

F. III Significance

Teachers' homes are eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A – Education, Ethnic History – African American, and Criterion C – Architecture.

Criterion A – Architecture, Ethnic History – African American
The teacherages that are associated with Rosenwald schools symbolize the commitment of the African American teachers to the communities they served. They illustrate the unique relationship between the teacher and the local African Americans as everyone struggled to give African American children an adequate education in a segregated South. Teachers' homes built by the Rosenwald School Building Fund were an integral component in Booker T. Washington's

overall educational concept. The construction of teacherages on the school grounds greatly improved the educational opportunities offered by the school and enabled teachers to provide leadership to the local African American community.

In plans provided to various communities, Washington and Samuel Smith, Director of the Southern Office, recommended that schools be constructed on a two-acre site, to give ample space for the schoolhouse, sanitary privies, a teacher's home, playgrounds for the boys and girls, a plot for agricultural demonstrations, and proper landscaping. Teachers were, for the most part, Hampton and Tuskegee graduates who had been trained in home building and home making. Hence, the teachers' homes became an attractive addition to the community. Also, they served as a social center where mothers' clubs and small socials were held.

As the teacher's homes became an attractive addition to the community, the teacher usually became a civic leader in the area. Hampton and Tuskegee graduates usually occupied the homes, as did the Jeanes Supervisors, who were community leaders and instrumental in raising funds for longer school terms and additional Rosenwald schools.

Criterion C – Architecture
The teachers' homes built by the Julius Rosenwald Fund reflect the architectural styles, forms, and trends popular in the Progressive era in America during the early part of the twentieth century. The homes are basically bungalows and Colonial Revival dwellings with minimal styling and detailing. They were, however, built according to designs furnished by Booker T. Washington at Tuskegee in The Rural Negro School and Samuel Smith in Community School Plans and complement the designs of the school buildings. In all, the Rosenwald fund contributed to the construction of 217 homes throughout the 15 Southern states. As part of the Rosenwald School Building Fund program, the teachers' homes were an integral part of the most ambitious building program undertaken to advance the cause of African American education in the South.

F. IV Registration Requirements
Teachers' homes were essentially modest, wood frame buildings constructed in rural areas near Rosenwald Schools. To be eligible, teacher's homes in Virginia must have been built between 1817 and 1932 with funds from Julius Rosenwald or the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The extant teachers' homes will also meet registration requirements because of their design, floor plans, workmanship, and materials. Stylistic details are minimal, although some teachers' homes display Craftsman or Colonial Revival influences. In general, to qualify for registration, the teachers' homes should retain their original location in a rural setting and the design, floor plan, workmanship, and materials that evoke their period of construction and the conditions of the time. They should also retain a high degree of architectural integrity. The integrity of their association and feeling is greatly bolstered by their rural setting. Teachers' homes nominated solely under Criterion A for Education and Ethnic Heritage do not have to possess as high a degree of architectural integrity as those teachers' homes that are also nominated under Criterion C for architecture.

F. I Industrial Vocational Buildings

F. II Description

Booker T. Washington, in The Rural Negro School, states, "the idea of the central school is mainly vocational. Three buildings are necessary: The school proper, the industrial building, and the teachers' homes." Industrial buildings or "shops" were inexpensive buildings, but well suited for carpentry, blacksmithing, and other forms of vocational work. The 40' x 30' building contained two rooms, one designed for carpentry work and the other for blacksmithing. The building features a gable on hip roof and wide overhanging eaves. Six double hung sash windows were located on each (short) side wall of the building while the front façade (long side) featured two sets of double doors as well as two double hung sash windows. Washington advocated a simple dirt floor although he suggested that if concrete was desired, it could be constructed at very little expense. The interior was left unfinished, as were the ceilings.

Only one plan for industrial shops is found in The Rural Negro School but none are found in Samuel Smith's Community School Plans. Industrial buildings were constructed using the plan found in The Rural Negro School. Industrial buildings or shops were usually located on the grounds of county training schools.

F. III Significance

Industrial buildings or shops are eligible for listing in the National Register under Criterion A – Education, Ethnic History – African American, and Criterion C – Architecture.

Criterion A – Education, Ethnic History – African American
Booker T. Washington and Julius Rosenwald joined forces to improve public education for African Americans in southern states. Their concern was practical as well as humanitarian. They set about creating a better-trained African American labor force through vocational instruction, then known as industrial education. Julius Rosenwald, like so many others believed that improved African American education based on the Hampton and Tuskegee models would not make African Americans unfit for their subordinate status and would make them more energetic, stable, and deferential laborers. Rosenwald was attracted to Washington's idea of self-help through vocational training and therefore, industrial education was a key component in his educational philosophy and the development of rural school plans. The 163 shops in 15 Southern states were an integral component of the Rosenwald School complex. In these buildings boys were taught carpentry, blacksmithing, furniture making, home building, and tool repair. The industrial buildings were integral parts of the Rosenwals School complex and best represent Booker T. Washington's and Julius Rosenwald's ideas on education for African Americans.

Criterion C – Architecture
The industrial buildings found in a Rosenwald school complex were an integral resource in the complex because they illustrate the significance that both Washington and Rosenwald placed on industrial education for rural Southern African Americans. The 163 industrial buildings or shops

constructed throughout the South were built according to plans and specifications produced by Booker T. Washington and his staff at Tuskegee. They are simple, utilitarian structures with a minimum of stylistic detailing.

F. IV Registration Requirements

Industrial buildings were essentially modest, utilitarian buildings constructed in the rural South as vocational training facilities for African American education. To be eligible, an industrial building must have been built between 1917 and 1932 utilizing funds provided personally by Julius Rosenwald or the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The plans for these structures were taken from The Rural Negro School. The extant industrial buildings will also usually meet registration requirements because of their design, floor plans, workmanship, and materials. Basically utilitarian structures, stylistic details are minimal. In general, to quality for registration, the schools should retain their original location in a rural setting and the design, floor plans, workmanship, and materials that evoke their period of construction and the conditions of the time. They should also retain a high degree of architectural integrity. The integrity of their association and feeling is greatly bolstered by their rural setting. Industrial buildings nominated solely under Criterion A for Education and Ethnic Heritage do not have to possess as high a degree of architectural integrity as those industrial buildings which are also nominated under Criterion C for architecture.

Geographical Data

Rosenwald Schools were built in the following 79 Virginia's 95 Counties (In three cases, the counties have since become Independent Cities. In those cases, the schools are listed under their present location.)

Accomac County
Albemarle County
Amelia County
Amherst County
Appomattox County
Arlington County
Augusta County
Bath County
Bedford County
Botetourt County
Brunswick County
Buckingham County
Campbell County
Caroline County
Carroll County
Charles City County
Charlotte County
Chesterfield County
City of Newport News (formerly Elizabeth City County)
City of Suffolk (formerly Nansemond County)
City of Virginia Beach (formerly Princess Anne County)
Clarke County
Culpepper County
Cumberland County
Dinwiddie County
Essex County
Fairfax County
Fauquier County
Floyd County
Fluvanna County
Franklin County
Frederick County
Gloucester County
Goochland County
Grayson County
Halifax County
Hanover County
Henrico County

Henry County
Isle of Wight County
James City County
King and Queen County
King George County
King William County
Lancaster County
Louisa County
Lunenburg County
Mathews County
Mecklenburg County
Middlesex County
Montgomery County
New Kent County
Norfolk County
Northampton County
Northumberland County
Nottoway County
Orange County
Page County
Pittsylvania County
Powhatan County
Prince Edward County
Prince George County
Prince William County
Pulaski County
Rappahannock County
Richmond County
Roanoke County
Rockbridge County
Rockingham County
Scott County
Smyth County
Southampton County
Spotsylvania County
Stafford County
Sussex County
Washington County
Westmoreland County
Wythe County
York County

Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

Rosenwald school buildings in Virginia are potentially eligible for historic designation under Criterion A as representative of a pattern of events that made a significant contribution to the development of education in the state from 1917 to 1932. Social history becomes a relevant historic context for Virginia schools when schools provided space that served as community centers for rural life. Ethnic heritage becomes a significant context when the segregated public school system provided school buildings for the education of Virginia's African American students.

Public school buildings in Virginia may also be eligible for historic designation under Criterion C as architecturally significant examples of Rosenwald-propagated standard school building designs. These designs are well documented in the *Community School Plans* (1924 and subsequent editions) and the Rosenwald Fund archive at Fisk University. African American local contributions included providing money and labor to construct and maintain the school buildings.

Integrity of potentially eligible Rosenwald school buildings must be evaluated in terms of location, setting, and architectural design. Eligible schools should retain their historic character of setting, access, and school grounds. Design considerations are also important. Eligible schools should retain original massing, floor plans, surface materials, and ornamental detailing; retention of original fenestration is particularly important.

Rosenwald School buildings were identified from the archives of the Rosenwald Fund maintained at Fisk University. The three appendicies to follow identify 1) a sample of the plans from Taylor and Hazel's The Negro Rural School And Its Relation To The Community and S.L. Smith's Community School Plans; 2) a list of Rosenwald school buildings built in Virginia organized by year of construction, and 3) a list of Rosenwald school buildings built in Virginia organized by county, and including as much information about funding and number of teachers as could be extracted from Fisk records.

The intent of this MPD is to serve to facilitate nomination of individual Rosenwald school buildings to the Virginia Landmarks Register and the National Register of Historic Places, and to serve as the basis of an on-going attempt to identify as many surviving Rosenwald school buildings as possible. To that end, this MPD will be regularly updated as new schools are identified through county surveys and individual initiatives, and will, in time, hopefully account for all extant Rosenwald school buildings in Virginia.

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Ann Andrus, John Kern, and Jack Zehmer of the DHR were of great help in preparing this document. The most useful model for anyone undertaking a study of Rosenwald schools is Alicestyne Thurley-Adams's report "Rosenwald Schools in Kentucky, 1917-1932," (Frankfort: The Kentucky Heritage Council and the Kentucky African American Heritage Commission,

1997), which served as the model for this report. The report is authoritative, succinct, and is indispensable reading for anyone studying Rosenwald schools. Section F of this report is based Section F of Alabama's "The Rosenwald School Building Fund and Associated Buildings MPS."

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Endnotes

[1] Louis R. Harlan, *Separate and Unequal, Public School Campaigns and Racism in the Southern Seaboard States, 1901-1915,* (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1958), 5.

[2] Alicestyne Thurley-Adams, Rosenwald Schools in Kentucky, 1917-1932. (Frankfort: The Kentucky Heritage Council and the Kentucky African American Heritage Commission, 1997), 8, and M. R. Werner, Julius Rosenwald: The Life of a Practical Humanitarian (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1939), 114.

[3] Thurley-Adams, 8, and Werner,127.

[4] Mary S. Hoffschwelle, Rebuilding the Rural Southern Community: Reformers, Schools and Homes in Tennessee, 1900-1930. (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1998), 4.

[5] Werner, 133, Thurley-Adams 17.

[6] Thurley-Adams, 17.

[7] Fisk University Special Collections, Rosenwald Fund Archives, Box 331:f4.

[8] Edwin Embree and Julia Waxman. Investment in People: The Story of the Julius Rosenwald Fund. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949).

[9] Hoffschwelle, Mary S. Rosenwald School Conference: Resource Guide. Murfreesboro, (Tennessee: Middle Tennessee State University, 1995).

[10] "Plans for the Erection of Rural Houses: Fisk University Special Collections, Rosenwald Fund Archive, Box 331:f4, as recorded in Thurley-Adams, 18-21.

[11] Thurley-Adams, 21-22.

[12]Mary Hoffschwelle, *Rosenwald School Conference: Resource Guide* (Murfreesboro, Tennessee: Middle Tennessee State University, 1995), 3-6.

[13] William A. Link, A *Hard Country and a Lonely Place: Schooling, Society, and Reform in Rural Virginia, 1870-1920,* (Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Caroline Press, 1986), 17.

[14]Ibid, 39.

[15]Buck, 156-161.